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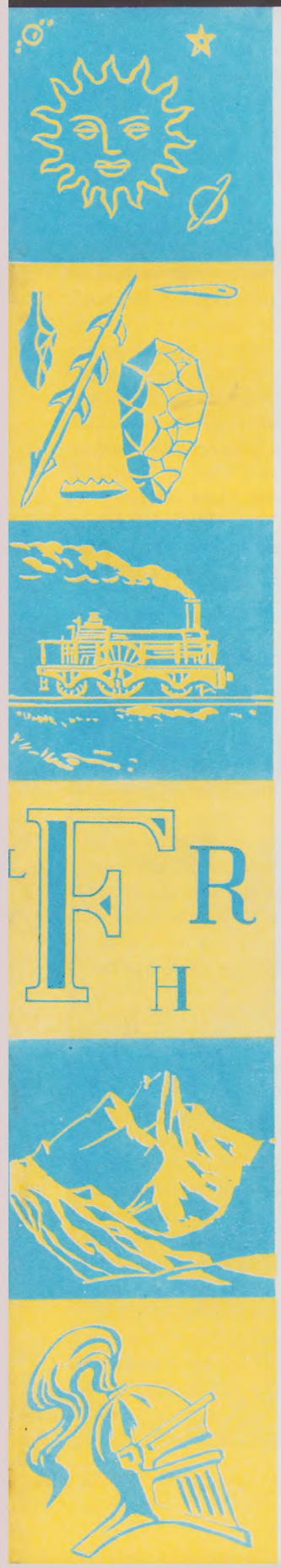

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FOOTBALL

NINETEEN-SIXTY-THREE was England's soccer centenary year. Exactly 100 years earlier the Football Association had been formed. On the evening of Monday 26th October 1863 a group of men met at the Freemason's Tavern, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London. Their aim was to produce a clear system of rules from a welter of varying regulations which had grown up as football became established in various public schools and clubs. Their major decision was a very fundamental one – that football meant *foot*ball, and the ball must not be caught, carried, or punched. At once there was disagreement, and a minority, known as the Blackheath group, broke away from the newly formed Football Association. They preferred the game as it was played at Rugby School, and the Rugby Union was founded in 1871.

And it was in 1871 that the next decisive step in 'soccer' (as Association Football is commonly known) was taken – the proposal for a competition between those clubs which were members of the Association; this was for the Challenge Cup known as the F A Cup. This idea caught on. Today the tension and uncertainty of the final at Wembley are highlights of the season.

During the 1870s and the two successive decades soccer took the shape that it has today. It was in this period that most of the famous clubs were founded, and also professional, paid, players began to supersede the amateurs, who were, of course, unpaid. However, it was not until 1885 that professionalism in soccer was legalised.

There is a good reason why all this should have occurred at the time it did, for the working man was gradually gaining more leisure time. Many workers began to have their Saturday afternoons free, although they were by no means well-paid. Whereas today cars, money, and television are incentives to find amusement either far afield or at home, in the late 19th century entertainment was limited, and so working men flocked in their thousands and their millions to watch football.

Professional clubs obviously needed regular fixtures to provide the funds for the players' wages, and so in 1888 the Football League came into being.

International soccer

In 1904 the International Football Federation, the F I F A, was founded. The English F A joined this in 1906. After the First World War the F A, refusing to be associated with former enemies like Germany, Austria, and Hungary, withdrew from the F I F A, but it rejoined in 1924. However, in 1928 the F A resigned again after a dispute over the amount of expenses paid to amateurs. The Association only rejoined in 1946, and so missed the first three World Cup competitions. England entered the fourth in 1950.

The World Cup is perhaps the major event in soccer. England has never won it, and nor have Northern Ireland, Scotland, or Wales. International soccer has gone far since the very first international in the world took place in 1872 between England and Scotland, with all the Scottish players coming from one amateur club, Queen's Park. The present holders of the World Cup are Brazil, who have won the last two competitions.

Suggestions for the future

Today British soccer has reached a crossroads. Soccer's future clearly lies with the international game, whether at club or country level. Many think there are far too many clubs in the Football League (there are 92), and that English players get stale through playing too many matches. Moreover, with crowded fixture lists, the home international teams (England, Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales) rarely get together except for international matches, which does not help them mould into good combinations.

One interesting proposal is for the formation of a 'super league' between a few, say a dozen, of the best clubs in the country. Playing only against good opposition and not nearly so often, the top English clubs would improve their standards, and perhaps dominate in that great annual competition for European league champions, the European Cup. And good clubs make for good national sides. Another interesting proposal supported by influential Everton is to allow foreign stars to play for English clubs. Everton have said that they would be prepared to pay over £200,000 for the right man; and there could be no doubt that if men like Brazil's Pele and Garrincha were playing in English football the defences, at least, would *have* to improve! Perhaps the most interesting idea of all is for a national side of Great Britain, instead of the present system of four 'home' teams representing England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. Provided they were able to play together often and learn to function as a team. It is hard to imagine any side in the world being confident against an eleven which included such men as Greaves and Charlton of England, Law and Ure of Scotland, Cliff Jones of Wales, and McIlroy of Northern Ireland. The problems of selecting such a team, and indeed of selecting selectors, would be great; but the idea has intriguing possibilities.

TRANSFER FEES RISE

Only a few years ago, in 1958, Manchester United paid a record fee of £45,000 for Albert Quixall. Yet today that figure has been made to seem tiny. Today clubs must be prepared to think in terms of £60,000 and £70,000 and even higher if they want the best players in the country. This is largely because foreign clubs like Torino and Inter-Milan are prepared to pay colossal prices for British players. In 1961 Jimmy Greaves went from Chelsea to Milan for £100,000. Within a year Tottenham Hotspur had bought him back, for £98,000.

This figure was, of course, a record transfer fee paid by an English club, but did not last long. Manchester City sold the great Scottish international Denis Law to Turin for £100,000. Now he is playing for Manchester United, who had to pay £115,000 to the Italian club to get him back. Arsenal have recently made three expensive signings. They paid Newcastle £47,500 for George Eastham, £70,000 to Turin for Joe Baker, and £62,500 for Ian Ure of Dundee.

Previous page: Above, a game of football today; below, an early game resembling football, played in mediaeval Florence.

The richly ornamented Viking ship found at Oseberg in Norway

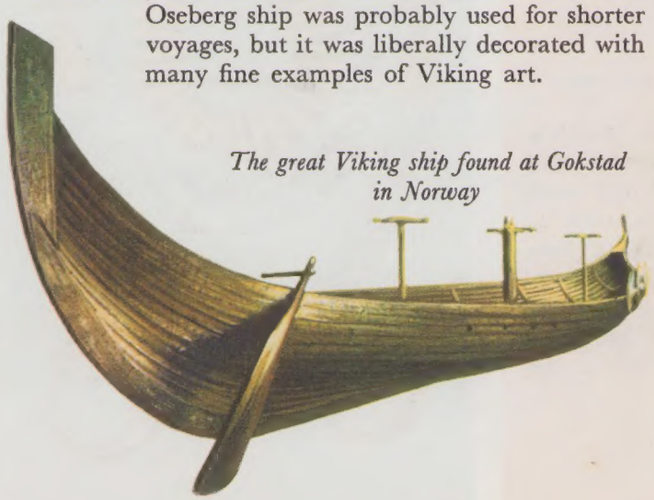
VIKING CIVILISATION

WHEN you come across the Vikings in your history books you will find they filled the role of ferocious, crafty, and cruel warriors, sailing in their sleek, fast ships from their native Scandinavia, plundering, and grabbing land from its rightful inhabitants. Certainly between the 9th and 11th centuries the Vikings blazed a trail of destruction right across Europe. England was constantly ravaged, and only the genius and ability of King Alfred (see page 894) saved her from being completely overrun. The less energetic rulers of Europe had a terrible time, being constantly harassed, defeated, and forced to part with large sums of money in tribute. Among the main Viking targets were the monasteries, and since many of the records of the period were kept by monks, the Vikings have naturally had a 'very bad press'.

But there is another side to the Vikings. They were plunderers, it is true, yet the list of their achievements is long. They were probably the first Europeans to set foot in America; they penetrated to Iceland and Greenland; they set up powerful states in Russia and south Italy. A settlement in northern France became the powerful, well-organised Duchy of Normandy, and its duke was to become King of England. All this shows that the Vikings had remarkable initiative and dynamism. Moreover, they left behind them relics of a vigorous civilisation. It may not have been as advanced as some of those in Europe, but it showed what an intelligent, energetic, and adaptable people they were.

The Oseberg and Gokstad ships

Perhaps the most remarkable relics of the Vikings are their ships. These were as advanced as any in Europe and enabled the Vikings to perform their marvellous feats of seamanship. We know quite a lot about these ships because many have been found in Viking burial mounds, like the Oseberg ship (above) and the Gokstad ship (below). The Gokstad ship was 76½ feet over all, with a beam of 17 feet. A replica of this ship crossed the Atlantic in 1873, and in one day it had an average speed of 11 knots under sail. Its great sail was decorated with red and white vertical stripes. The oars were 16 feet long – about the size of those of a modern lifeboat – and had a narrow blade. The Oseberg ship was probably used for shorter voyages, but it was liberally decorated with many fine examples of Viking art.



The great Viking ship found at Gokstad in Norway

The Vikings' weapons (swords, spears, and axes) were treated with respect; one king rebuked a follower for fighting with a plank and fists and not, as God had indicated, with sword and spear.

The Viking ships could be propelled by sail or by oars. They could be used for ferrying troops on short voyages of plunder or for long voyages of exploration or trade. In the latter case the crew would be smaller, between 15 and 30, and propulsion would be by sail. The shields of the warriors were placed along the side of the ship. The Vikings had no magnetic compass, but it has been suggested that they had some kind of sun compass.

With these ships the Vikings made voyages as heroic and remarkable as any of the great voyages of the Age of Discovery. Their ships were seen in the Caspian Sea, Black Sea, White Sea, the Arctic, and the North Atlantic. They carried silk, silver, and spices from the east, walrus ivory and furs from the north.

A fleet of Viking ships steals up to make a dawn attack on a sleeping town

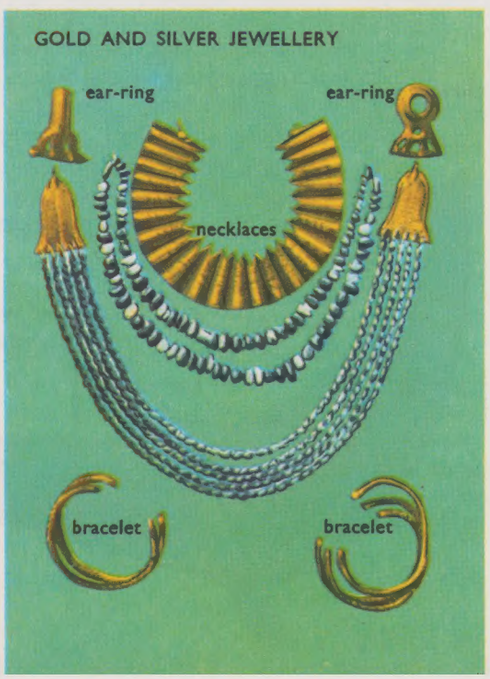
Viking tools: axeheads, hammerheads, and 'plyers'

In 1936 an old tool chest was found dating from the Viking period. It must have belonged to a 'Jack of all trades', for the tools ranged from a heavy hammer to a punch for ornamental work. There was also a first-rate saw and chisel.

These tools show us that the Vikings had implements as good as any found right up to the start of the Industrial Revolution in the mid-18th century.

A beautifully carved gold spur

Viking burial mounds have yielded up many rich and varied ornaments. Many of these were not home-made but were plundered or received as tribute; they could range from the elaborate spur illustrated above to the more primitive women's ornaments below.



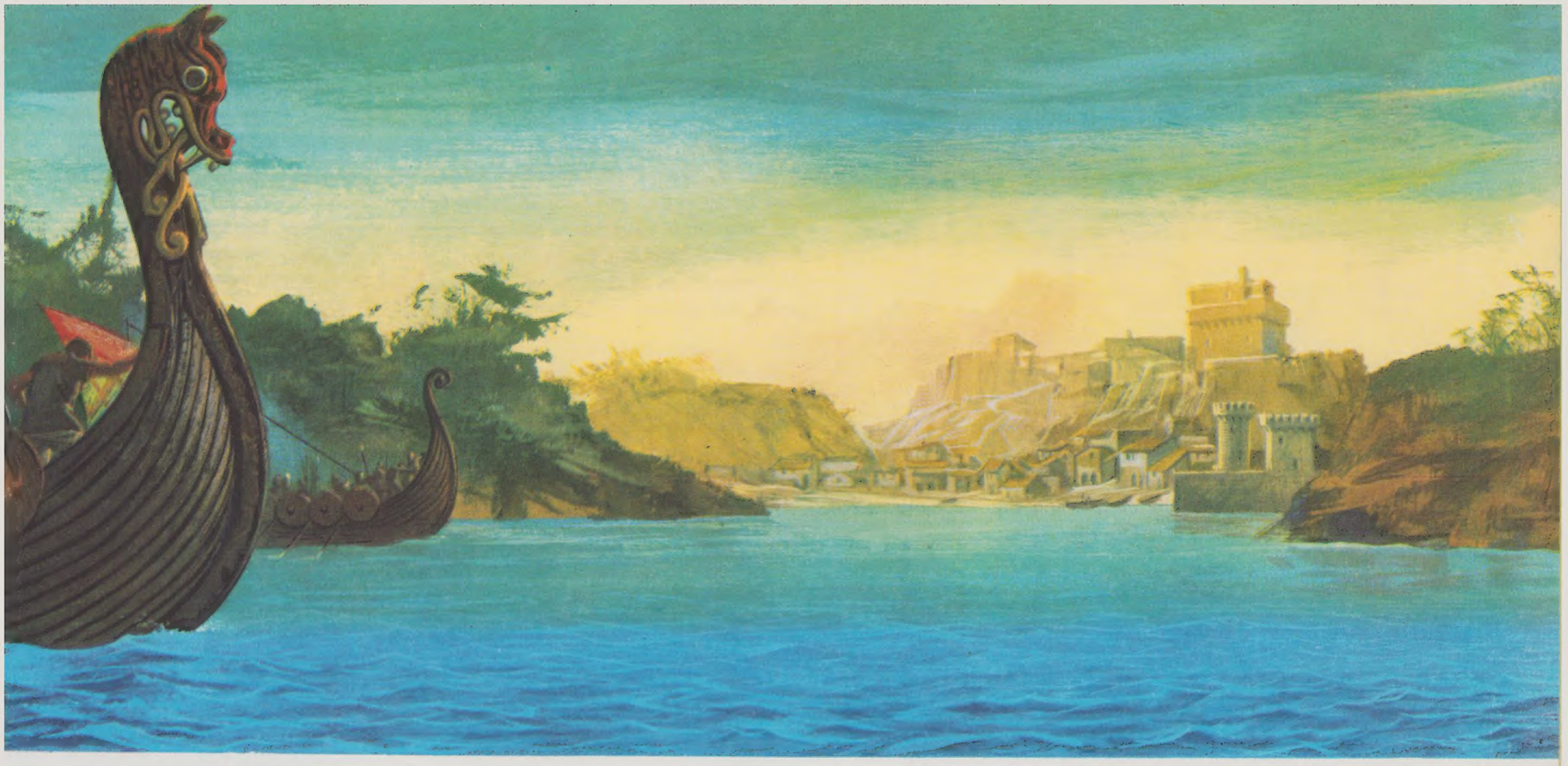
Viking barrow

Like the Romans, the Vikings had the knack of taking ideas from other people and adapting them to their own use. Their art is a mixture of that of many European schools, notably Carolingian, Irish, and English, but

The Vikings built boats, houses, and furniture out of wood. Like the Scandinavians of today, wood was their chief building material. Below: a roughly carved bed and chest

Viking bed

A carved chest



Elaborately carved Viking sledge

at the same time it is quite unique. The barrow on the left (found in the Oseberg burial mounds) and the sleigh above are reconstructed from fragments. They show the high standard and often intricate design of Viking craftsmen.

Before their conversion to Christianity the Vikings worshipped Germanic gods like Woden (Odin) the great warrior, and Thor with his invincible thunder hammer. Heaven for them was Valhalla where the good things of life – feasting, fighting, drinking out of the skulls of enemies, and story-telling – continued in the company of past heroes.

Stone with Runic inscription

LITERATURE. The Vikings' civilisation was not such as to produce poets as we know them now, but they loved hearing songs or verses about the great deeds of their heroes. Many of these are embodied in the great 12th- and 13th-century Viking sagas which recapture the spirit of the earlier epics. They are full of drama – and the drama is heightened in the telling. This is how the Battle of Clontarf in 1014 is described:

'I was there when warriors fought
Swordblades rang on Ireland's coast
Metal yelled as shield it sought
Spear points in t[illegible]ll-armed host.'

And these words are put int[illegible]outh of Harold Hardrada as he goes into battle at Stamford Bridge in 1066:

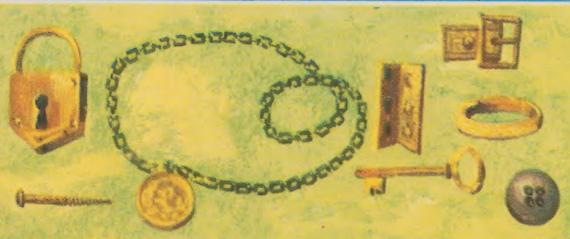
'We creep not up to weapons' crash
The hawks' land's goddess bade me so
H'igh, where battle-ice and [illegible]elmet meet
Amid the weapons' din, my head to bear
So bade the necklace-bearer fair.'

The earlier Scandinavian writing, like all early [illegible]manic script, is known [illegible]unes. There were originally 24 Runic letters derived from the Greek and Roman alphabets; their shapes gradually changed to make the carving of inscriptions easier.

Quotations from *The Vikings* by Holger Arbman, edited by Alan Binns, published by Thames and Hudson.

As the Vikings became converted to Christianity wooden churches like this one in Norway began to appear

THE OSTRICH



An assortment of objects from the stomach of an ostrich

THERE are two legends about the ostrich, one of which has some slight foundation in fact, the other none at all. The first of these is that an ostrich can digest anything. Many birds are attracted by bright, shining objects; magpies and jackdaws are among them and so is the ostrich. Since its beak and throat are very large it frequently swallows such articles, and we show above a selection of metal objects that have been taken from ostriches' stomachs. But the bird does not digest these things; if they are small they may do it no harm, but too large or too numerous items of this sort are likely to make the bird sick or to kill it. It is foolish and cruel to try to persuade a captive ostrich to swallow things of this kind.

The other story, in which there is no truth at all, is that the ostrich buries its head in the sand when threatened. It is possible that this legend arose from the position which the bird adopts when on its nest, when it lies with its head and neck stretched out in front of it.

THE LARGEST LIVING BIRD

The ostrich is the largest bird alive in the world today, though still larger species, such as the moas of New Zealand, have become extinct in historical times. It is unable to fly and differs from all other birds in having only two toes on each foot, one much larger than the other. The foot of an ostrich can almost be regarded as a hoof, and has been developed for running, just like the hooves of the ungulate mammals.

The ostrich is closely related to the rheas of South America, and (less closely) to the emus and cassowaries of the Australian region.

WHERE THEY LIVE

Ostriches once ranged over much of Asia and survived until recently in Syria and Arabia. Now they are found in the wild state only on the continent of Africa, living in dry grassland and semi-desert.

All ostriches are placed in one species, *Struthio camelus*, but there are various sub-species. These can be distinguished from each other chiefly by the colour of the naked skin of their heads and necks, which is bluish grey in the Somali ostrich, and reddish in the Sahara ostrich. The latter is shown in all our illustrations.

ITS APPEARANCE

Only the body of the ostrich is covered with feathers; its head, neck, and legs, right up to the thighs, are naked or, at most, slightly hairy. Its head is small and flat, and armed with a broad, very strong beak. Its wings are small and have no stiff feathers, unlike those of other birds.

It relies mainly on its sense of sight, and its eyes are large.

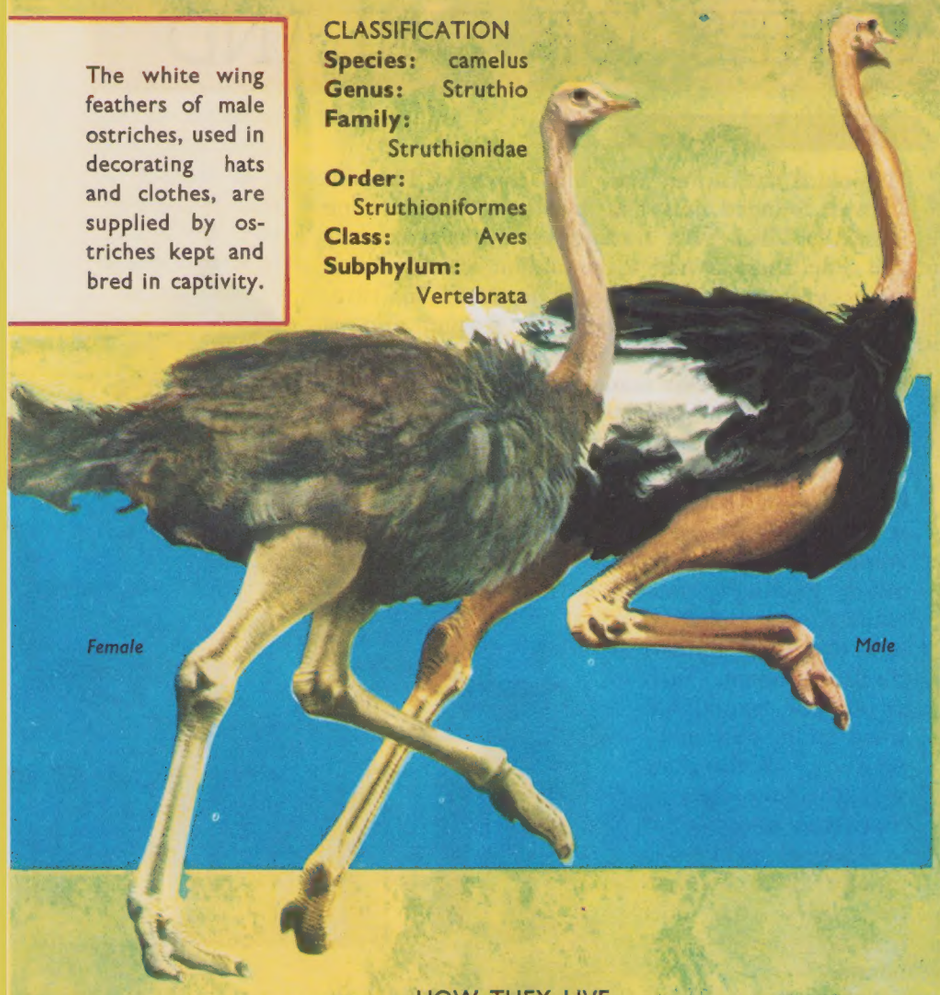
A pair of ostriches; the male is on the right, a few steps in front of the female. The male is considerably the larger; its back is nearly 5 feet off the ground and it weighs over 300 pounds; its head may be over 7 feet from the ground. Male ostriches have black plumage on their bodies, and pure white feathers on their wings and tails. The plumage of females is greyish brown.

Its legs are long and exceedingly strong; its large two-toed feet are well adapted for swift running in open country. An ostrich can run at 40 m p h, and its strides are sometimes 15 feet long. It is a curious fact that ostriches have the habit of running not in a straight line but in a great circle. For this reason men hunting them on horseback can often get a shot at them by cutting across their way of escape.

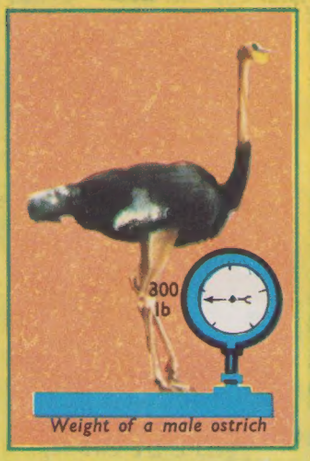
A family of baby ostriches following their father, who is a devoted parent

The white wing feathers of male ostriches, used in decorating hats and clothes, are supplied by ostriches kept and bred in captivity.

CLASSIFICATION
Species: camelus
Genus: Struthio
Family: Struthionidae
Order: Struthioniformes
Class: Aves
Subphylum: Vertebrata



Dimensions of the ostrich



Weight of a male ostrich

An ostrich's egg may weigh over 3 pounds – as much as 24 hens' eggs

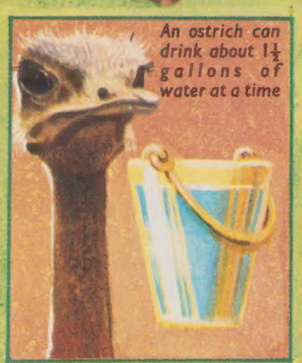
Ostrich chicks are as big as domestic fowls

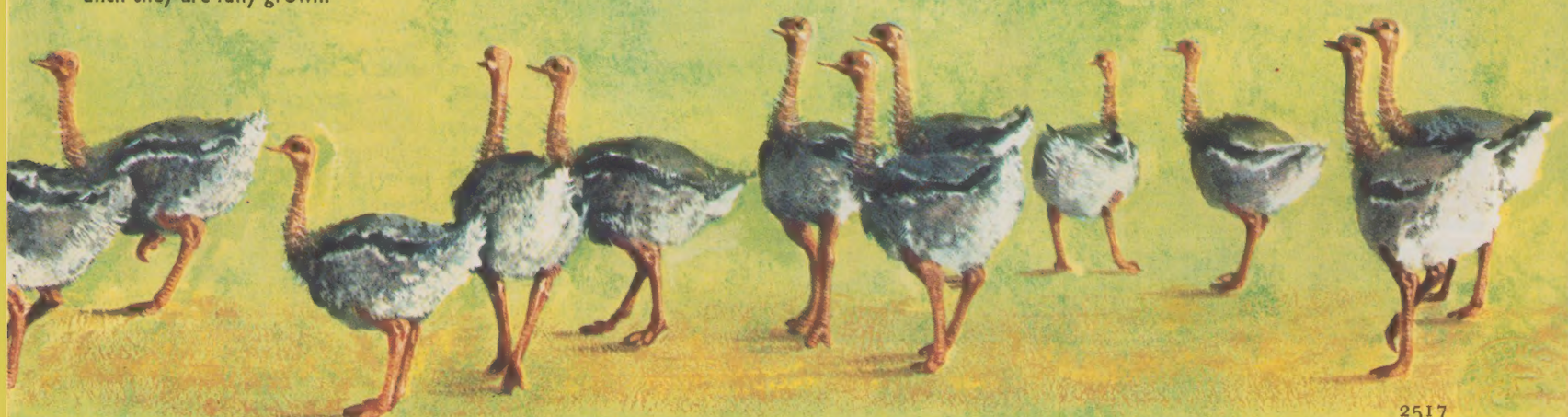
HOW THEY LIVE

Ostriches live in open savannah country, avoiding forest. Outside the breeding season they run in groups of about 20, often in company with zebras, antelopes, and other large mammals. The keen eyes of the ostrich are 7 feet from the ground and can often detect danger at a distance, and the animals are quick to recognise the ostriches' alarm. The birds probably gain some benefit by catching small creatures disturbed by the mammals' trampling feet. Ostriches live largely on seeds and fruits, but will eat insects, reptiles, and other small animals when they can catch them. They can go without water for days at a time, but drink deeply when it is available, and are also fond of bathing.

In the breeding season they separate into groups consisting of three or four females and a male. The male scrapes a shallow hole in the ground and in this the hens lay their eggs until there are about 20 in the nest. At night the male sits on the eggs, but by day they are either covered with sand and left to the warmth of the sun or, in cool weather, are incubated by the females. It is an interesting fact that the hen bird, who is well camouflaged by her grey-brown plumage, undertakes all the daytime incubation; the male would be very conspicuous by day. The chicks hatch after about six weeks and are carefully guarded by their parents until they are fully grown.

The stride of a running ostrich may be 15 feet


An ostrich can drink about 1½ gallons of water at a time



CITIES OF FINLAND

A wooden Finnish house – wood is widely used in Finland as a building material

ALTHOUGH Finland is nearly one and a half times the size of Great Britain, her population is ten times less. Over 40 per cent of her $4\frac{1}{2}$ million people live in the three most southerly provinces. Little of the country can be cultivated; three-quarters of it is covered by coniferous forest (a higher proportion than in any other European country), while there are also 60,000 lakes. Arable land in fact covers only 8 per cent of the country, yet agriculture is the main occupation of the Finns. These conditions, in many ways similar to those in Norway (see page 2502), have meant that few large towns have grown up.

Finland is bordered by Norway on the north, Sweden and the Gulf of Bothnia on the west, and the Soviet Union on the east. For centuries she was part of Sweden, and to this day Swedish influence has survived in the names of many towns. In 1809 Finland came under Russian rule, from which she only emerged as an independent republic in 1919. After the Second World War, in which Finland sided with Germany in an attempt to avoid Russian domination, Russia claimed Karelia, her richest province, and crippling reparations. These were paid off by 1952, and in fact acted as a great stimulus to Finnish metal and engineering industries which, driven by hydroelectricity, are now rivalling timber, the age-old foundation of her economy.

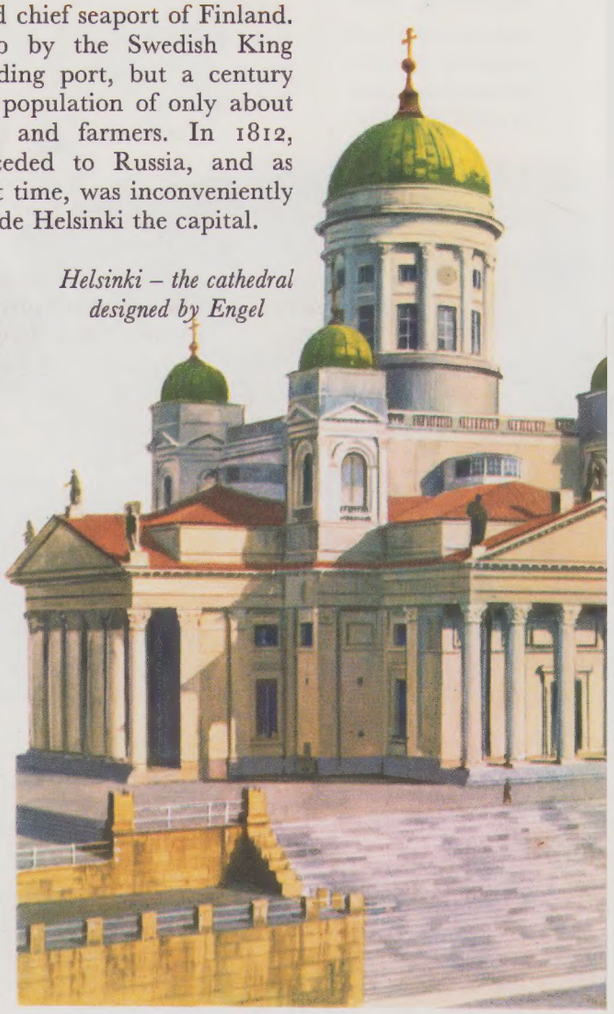
Today Finland is in many ways one of the most advanced European countries, and this advance has been connected very much with the growth of her new industrial towns. These towns are small and astonishingly clean, since industries run on hydroelectricity produce no dirty smoke. The town planning and architecture are very impressive; houses and factories are set in extensive gardens and parks, and there are few ugly suburbs.

HELSINKI

Helsinki is the capital and chief seaport of Finland. It was founded in 1550 by the Swedish King Gustavus Vasa, as a trading port, but a century and a half ago it had a population of only about 4,000, mainly fishermen and farmers. In 1812, however, Finland was ceded to Russia, and as Turku, the capital at that time, was inconveniently near Sweden the Tsar made Helsinki the capital.

Since then Helsinki has grown rapidly, and its present population is about 462,000. It is a very busy port, importing coal, oil, grain, foodstuffs, machinery, iron, and steel, and exporting timber, timber products such as plywood, paper, and wood pulp, and dairy products. Icebreakers keep the port open in the winter months, but in severe winters – usually about once in five years – the port may be completely icebound.

In the hot summer months everyone tries to move out of Helsinki; many go to the small, rocky islands close to the city.

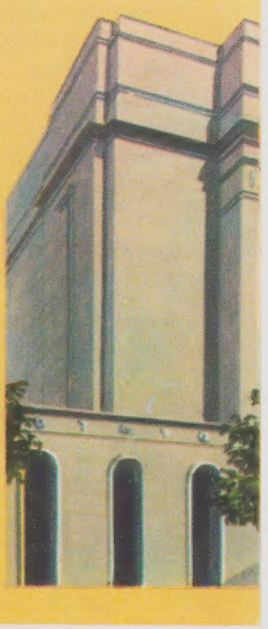


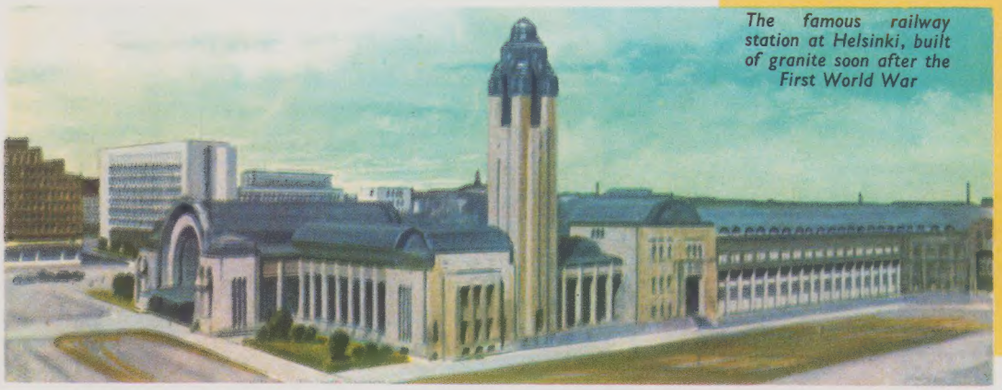
Helsinki – the cathedral designed by Engel

ARCHITECTURE IN HELSINKI

In 1818 Helsinki was practically wiped out by fire, which provided the German-born architect Carl Ludwig Engel with a wonderful opportunity to replan and rebuild the city. Among the buildings he designed are the cathedral, the university, and the State Council Building, all in the central square.

Later architects continued to rebuild Helsinki, mostly using the local light-coloured stone, which has led to Helsinki being nicknamed the White City of the North. Among buildings erected shortly after Finland eventually achieved independence in 1919 are the Parliament House (right) and railway station (left).





The famous railway station at Helsinki, built of granite soon after the First World War

OULU

Oulu, which has about 59,000 inhabitants, is the sixth largest city in Finland. Set among forests and lakes, it is one of the most northerly Finnish cities.

It is a seaport and industrial town on the Gulf of Bothnia, and is the industrial centre of the northern region of Finland. Like so many industrial towns in Finland, its factories are mainly for timber products, but it also produces leather goods.

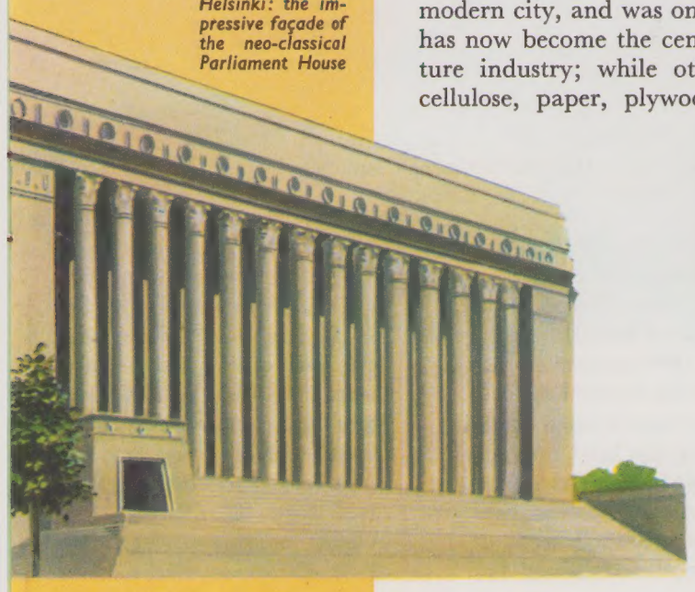
FACTS AND FIGURES

Area of Finland: 130,000 sq. ml.

Density of population: 34 per sq. ml.

Capital: Helsinki

Languages: most Finns are bi-lingual in Finnish and Swedish.



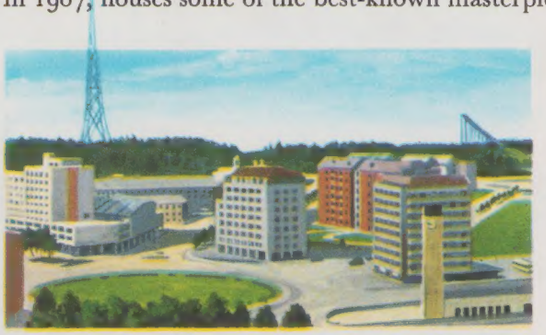
Helsinki: the impressive façade of the neo-classical Parliament House

TAMPERE

Tampere, the second largest city in Finland (population 126,500), was founded in 1779 by a Swedish king. It lies inland, about 100 miles from Helsinki. The city has often been compared with Manchester; its industrial growth began early in the 19th century when a Scotsman called John Finlayson established a factory for spinning cotton there. The firm of Finlayson still exists, and continues to be one of the country's leading industrial enterprises. Today there are over 400 factories in Tampere, and since they are surrounded by fields and gardens they have led to Tampere's nickname: 'the industrial park of Finland'. In addition to cloth, these factories produce goods connected with the timber industry and mechanical implements such as snow-ploughs and icebreakers.

Most buildings in Tampere are comparatively modern; the cathedral, built in 1907, houses some of the best-known masterpieces of Finnish art.

Tampere, Sweden's second city – part of the gardens in the centre of the city



Lahti – a view of the city centre showing the modern residential buildings. On the right is the famous ski jump

LAHTI

Lahti stands at the southern end of one of Finland's largest lake systems (Vesijarvi-Paijanne), about 60 miles to the north-east of Helsinki. It is an excellently planned modern city, and was only founded in 1878. It has now become the centre of Finland's furniture industry; while other factories produce cellulose, paper, plywood, and matches (all made from timber from the surrounding forest), and shoes and glass. It is now the fourth largest city in Finland; its population, which has doubled in the last ten years, is about 65,000.

Lahti is also the chief winter sports centre in Finland, and the World Ski Championships were held here in 1958.

TURKU

The oldest city in Finland is Turku, which was founded in the 13th century and which was the country's capital until 1812. It lies on the Gulf of Bothnia, about 100 miles to the west of Helsinki. With a population of about 125,000 it is the third largest city in the country.

A series of fires destroyed many of the older buildings of Turku; but the 13th-century cathedral, gutted by fire in 1827, was immediately restored and is the seat of the Archbishop of Finland. The ancient castle, the oldest part of which was built in the 13th century, now contains a historical museum.

Turku is now the principal winter port and shipbuilding centre of Finland.

Turku – the magnificent 13th-century cathedral

An icebreaker keeps the port open throughout the winter. The chief exports are timber, grain, butter, pork, beef, and bar iron; imports include salt, salt fish, oil, cotton, coal, machinery, and pig iron. The imported materials supply the local textile and engineering industries, while the surrounding district supplies the raw materials for timber and cement industries.

EUROPE AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

EUROPE could relax again. She had suffered 23 years of almost incessant war. The last 15 had been the era of Napoleon, and under his absolute domination as the Emperor of France (see page 2507) many of the great powers had, for practical purposes, disappeared as independent states. And now, after the overthrow of Napoleon's rule, the representatives of all the great powers could meet as equals to reorganise Europe after its long period of disruption.

The predominant concern at the Congress of Vienna (1814–1815) was naturally that Bonapartism should never again be permitted (see page 145). And this meant that France must be restricted and her rulers discouraged from ever again embarking on a career of conquest. Already French territory had shrunk to its frontiers of 1792, but after the Hundred Days the diplomats at Vienna cut these back to where they had been in 1790. And barriers were set up all round France. Belgium was taken away from Austria and united with Holland; this, it was thought, would give her the strength she had lacked when the French armies seized her at the outbreak of the wars. In compensation for this Austria was given Lombardy and Venetia in Northern Italy. This was intended to balk any future French designs on Italy which, after all, had been the theatre of Bonaparte's first major successes (see page 2491). Prussia was strengthened by the acquisition of part of the Rhineland, which again was intended to bolster one of the traditional areas of French expansion. On the 'balance of power' theory Prussia's gains had to be counteracted by gains for Russia, and these were mainly at the expense of Poland.

But the Congress of Vienna established a principle of peace far more important than territorial adjustments. For the Great Powers realised that they had overcome Napoleon by co-operation, and if this co-operation could be extended into peace-time future wars might be prevented altogether. So the Quadruple Alliance between Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain was made with provisions that they should meet regularly to discuss and settle the affairs of Europe. Thus was established the so-called Congress system, based on the principle of international co-operation. This was to fail for two reasons. First, since the interests of the European countries were different, they could not agree over controversial issues; the eastern powers (Austria, Prussia, and Russia) thought that all the Great Powers should help legitimate rulers to curb rebellions against them; but Great Britain, and to a lesser extent France, held no such principles and thought that rebellion was an internal affair and not a matter for international intervention by other powers. The second reason was the Holy Alliance – an agreement by certain monarchs to 'uphold Christian principles'. This was used by the eastern powers to further their own 'illiberal' ends. The Holy Alliance came to undermine the Quadruple Alliance and so Britain withdrew her support. From 1820 the system worked badly. By 1823 it was, for practical purposes, dead.

Frederick III, King of Prussia

Francis I, Emperor of Austria

Louis XVIII, King of France

BELGIUM, the former Austrian Netherlands, was united with Holland in 1815. This union of the Catholic Belgians with the Protestant Dutch was dangerously unstable; in 1831 Palmerston negotiated Belgian independence under Leopold I.

FRANCE. The restoration of the Bourbons was not a success. Since they returned by permission of France's enemies, they were inevitably linked with the humiliation of France. Their return also brought punishment upon France, for her boundaries were reduced to where they had been in 1790. In any case France, with her Revolutionary slogan of *liberty, equality, fraternity*, was in no mood to tolerate a return to absolutist rule. Louis XVIII, who was intelligent enough to realise that he had to be careful, was accepted; but his reactionary brother Charles X was less astute. The people revolted and in 1830 Charles fled, to be replaced by the 'bourgeois' Orleanist Louis Philippe. But Louis's rule proved equally unsatisfactory, and in 1848 another revolution resulted in the Second Republic, with Napoleon's nephew Louis Napoleon as president. On 2nd December 1852 this republic became the Second Empire, for Louis Napoleon was crowned Emperor Napoleon III of France. The wheel had turned full circle.

ITALY. Metternich called Italy a 'geographical expression' – and indeed she was little more. The Austrians were entrenched in Lombardy and Venetia, while the rest of the Italian states were little more than Austrian satellites. Moreover, many Italian sovereigns, like the Bourbons of Naples and Sicily (see page 1089), were thoroughly oppressive, while the Papal States were a bulwark against progress.

BRITAIN was greatly strengthened by the Congress. She was confirmed in the possession of many former French colonies including Malta, Tobago, and Mauritius, and under a succession of great foreign ministers like Castlereagh, Canning, and Palmerston she pursued a vigorous foreign policy. In general she threw her weight on the side of liberalism and nationalism. Thus Canning denounced and broke the Congress system which had become the organ of the Holy Alliance, while Palmerston in 1830 and 1831 engineered Belgian independence from Holland. But in the years following Vienna Britain came to support one extremely illiberal institution – the Turkish empire. Except in the case of Greece, whose rebellion received Canning's blessing, it became a cardinal point of policy to 'support the integrity of the Turkish empire'.

YOU SHOULD NOW KNOW

1. *How was France punished by the Congress of Vienna?*
2. *Which four countries formed the Quadruple Alliance?*
3. *Who represented Russia at Vienna?*
4. *Name three French colonies gained by Britain.*
5. *What was the Holy Alliance?*

AUSTRIA was extremely influential in the years following the Congress of Vienna. Indeed the period 1815 to 1848 is often called 'Metternich's Europe', after the Austrian Chancellor who dominated it. He was the prime mover in turning the Holy Alliance into an instrument of reaction, for no nation had a greater vested interest in crushing the forces of nationalism and liberalism than Austria with her despotic government and numerous and restless subject races (see page 2180).

In 1819 Metternich produced his *Carlsbad Decrees* which sought to crush liberalism within Germany; the next year he agreed to the famous *Troppau Circular* in which the intention was announced of crushing rebellions against any legitimate sovereign. A network of spies and secret agents was established, and indeed Metternich's system depended very much on turning the German Confederation into a 'police state'. Metternich was unsuccessful in preventing Russia and Britain helping the Greeks in their fight for independence from Turkey; nevertheless his repressive measures in Germany and Italy were largely responsible for the explosions of 1848.

RUSSIA. At the Congress of Vienna Tsar Alexander I posed as 'liberal', but he gradually became less and less so as the years passed, while his successor, Nicholas I, turned out to be an arch-reactionary. Alexander promised to set up an independent Poland, but in practice this proved simply a means for Russia to acquire huge tracts of the country, including Warsaw.

One of the big problems that occupied Russia, and indeed many of the great powers after Vienna, was that of Turkey. The break-up of the Turkish empire seemed imminent. Greece was the first to break away, but there were no other inroads until after the Crimean War. Britain feared that Russia would encourage the disintegration of the Turkish empire so that she could absorb or influence the independent states which emerged. Thus Britain and Russia became extremely suspicious of each other, and it was the Russian occupation of Moldavia and Walachia (the present Romania) which sparked off the Crimean War in 1853.

Nevertheless many young nationalists, fired by the spirit which Napoleon had unwittingly engendered, began the Young Italy movement. This was to produce results in 1848, the Year of Revolutions.

PRUSSIA was not a great force between 1815 and 1848. Politically she was dominated by Austria, and it was not until the 1860s that she emerged as the undoubted leader of Germany, which she was to unite in 1871. Nevertheless it was in the years after 1815 that Stein built up the Prussian army into the efficient instrument which was later improved and used so effectively by Bismarck (see page 1332). Moreover, the establishment of the trading community within Germany known as the *Zollverein* (customs union), headed by Prussia, was important in binding many of the northern German states to Prussia as opposed to Austria.

Look at the reflection of your eyes in a small mirror and make a mental note of the size of the dark circular spaces, the *pupils*, in the centre of each coloured *iris*. Now go to a place where the sun or a bright electric light shines on your face, and look at your eyes in the mirror again. You will see that your irises have contracted and that the pupils have therefore become much smaller.

The contraction of the pupils reduces the amount of light which can pass into the eyes, and in this way the delicate *retina* at the back of each eyeball is protected from injury by overbright light. During the course of a day the intensity of the light to which people are subject changes often, and each time that this happens the irises contract or expand so that the amount of light admitted to each eye is never too great.

The intensity of the light, however, is not the only factor which influences the size of the pupils. They also contract each time the gaze is shifted from a distant object to one which is nearer.

This second experiment will prove this for you. Ask one of your friends to sit on a chair and to look at an object as far away as possible. Then, while you are observing his pupils, ask him to look instead at the tip of your finger held about one foot from his nose. As soon as his eyes converge on the nearer object you will see his pupils contract.

The particularly interesting feature of these alterations in the size of the iris and thus of the pupil is that they need no conscious effort, nor can any amount of concentration control them. We cannot even feel them taking place.

THE AUTONOMIC

CERTAIN parts of the body seem to work quite automatically. When a bright light shines on the eyes the pupils contract and so protect the delicate retinae; when hard manual work is being done the heart beats faster and so provides the muscles with the extra blood that they need; and when a meal has been eaten the glands and muscles of the intestinal tract all work to bring about its digestion. The conscious mind is almost completely ignorant of these processes going on in the body and cannot control them in any way. But they are not independent of control by the nerves. All, in fact, are regulated by the *autonomic nervous system*, a network of nerves which, though it operates unconsciously, is very much part of the nervous system as a whole.

Besides the pupils, the heart, and the digestive system, the autonomic nervous system controls all other parts of the body which work 'automatically'. Thus it regulates respiration, blood

The sympathetic system conditions the body for the expenditure of energy

The parasympathetic system reduces the activity of lungs, heart, and liver

The sympathetic system

These nerves carry impulses which condition the body for the expenditure of energy – for instance, in running in a race, or during very hard work. The respiratory passages are dilated ① and breathing increases; the blood pressure rises ②; and ③ sugar is transferred from the liver to the blood.

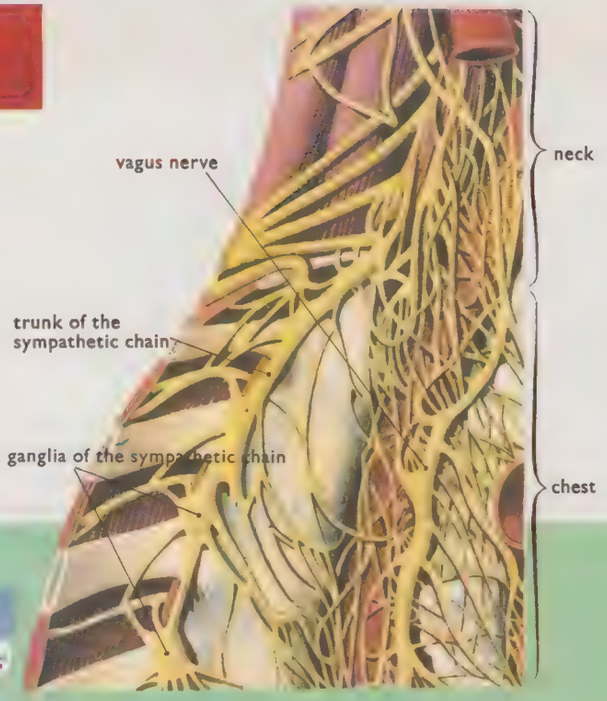
The parasympathetic system

These nerves carry impulses which have the opposite effect to those of the sympathetic system. Respiration becomes shallow ①; the blood pressure falls ②; and the amount of sugar secreted by the liver into the blood is reduced ③. The parasympathetic system, however, stimulates digestion.

dilates the pupil	
contracts the pupil	
inhibits the secretion of saliva	
stimulates the secretion of saliva	
accelerates the heart rate	
slows the heart rate	
dilates the respiratory passages	
contracts the respiratory passages	
stimulates the activity of the liver	
reduces the activity of the liver	
reduces gastric secretion and movements	
increases gastric secretion and movements	
contracts the spleen and thus brings more blood into the circulation	
allows the spleen to relax	
reduces the secretion of the pancreatic juice	
increases pancreatic secretion	
reduces intestinal secretion and movement	
increases intestinal secretion and movement	
reduces the secretion of urine	
increases the secretion of urine	
relaxes the muscle of the urinary bladder	
contracts the muscle of the urinary bladder	

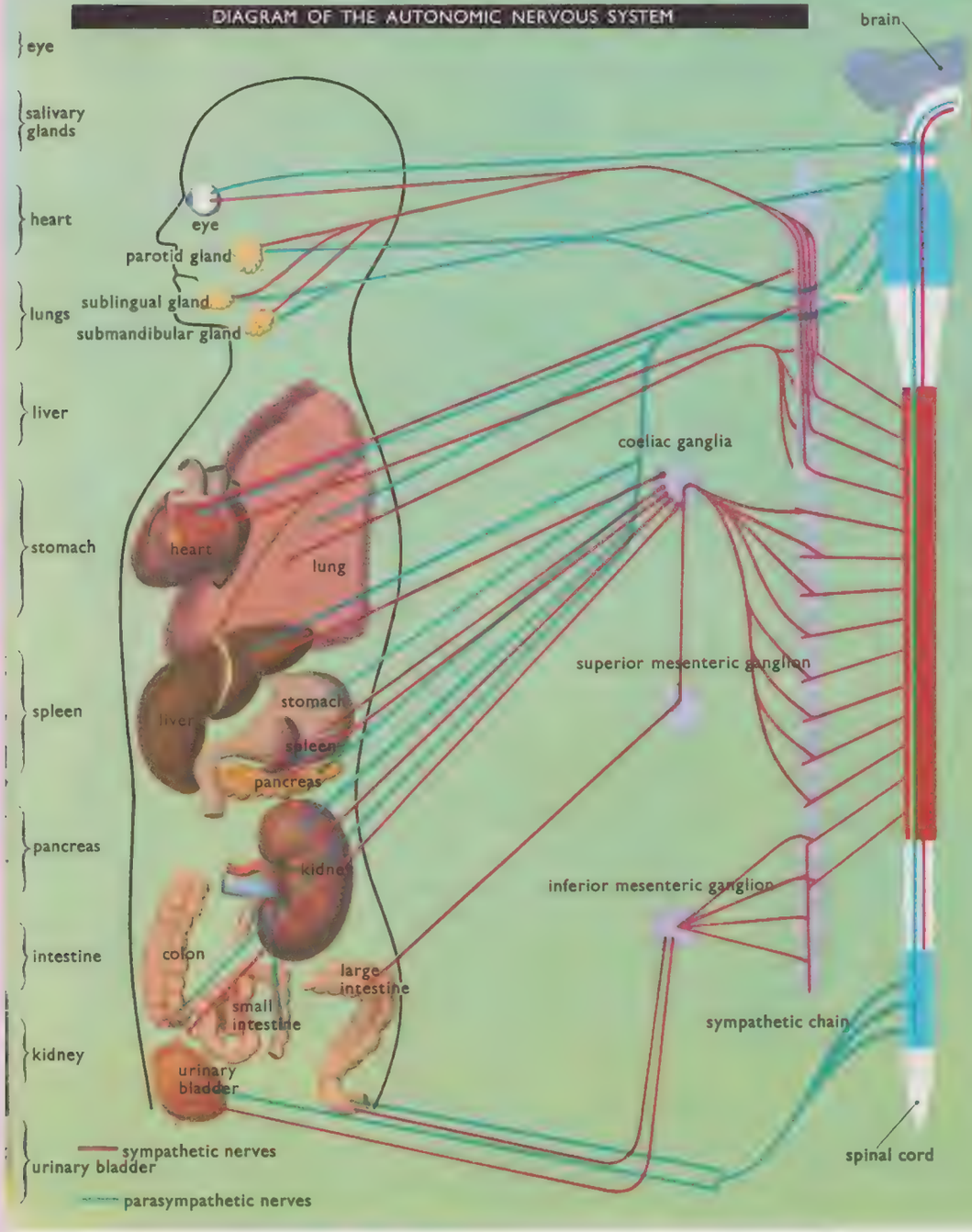
pressure, the secretion of urine, and the contraction of the urinary bladder. Its ability to control the secretion of the hormone *adrenaline*, made in the medulla of the adrenal gland, is particularly interesting.

Like the nerves which supply the skin and muscles of the limbs, the nerves of the autonomic system contain both *sensory* and *motor* fibres. The sensory messages which these nerves carry to the brain and spinal cord, however, seldom produce conscious sensations. They merely initiate appropriate motor impulses which travel along the motor fibres to control the various organs. These impulses are of two types, for the autonomic system has two quite different parts known as the *sympathetic* and *parasympathetic* systems, and these generate nerve messages which produce very different effects.



Autonomic ganglia and nerves in the head and neck

DIAGRAM OF THE AUTONOMIC NERVOUS SYSTEM



A LITTLE ANATOMY

The small nerves of the sympathetic system spring from each of the thoracic spinal nerves (see page 2440) and also from the first two lumbar nerves. These sympathetic nerves pass laterally and then form a chain of swellings, or *ganglia*, at the side of the vertebral column. It is from these ganglia that sympathetic nerves arise to serve the various organs of the body. Some of the nerves pass directly to the organs; others first pass through additional ganglia.

The parasympathetic division consists of two quite different parts. The *cranial outflow* is formed of fibres contained in the oculomotor, facial, glossopharyngeal, vagus, and accessory nerves. The *sacral outflow* is formed from small nerves which spring from the second, third, and fourth sacral nerves. It is much smaller than its cranial counterpart.

A BALANCED SYSTEM

Accounts of the autonomic nervous system often give the impression that the two divisions are locked in a continuous struggle for control of the activities of the many organs which they innervate. To a certain extent this is true, but it must be remembered that their functions are often complementary. In an emergency the sympathetic system brings about effects likely to ensure survival, but during quiet periods the parasympathetic system allows many tissues to rest and at the same time encourages the body to recoup energy through the digestion of food.

THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND

Delegates to the Lambeth Conference attending the opening service at Canterbury

WHEN someone says that they belong to a church, it usually means that they belong to an organised Christian community like the Church of England, the Roman Catholic Church, the Coptic Church, and so on. This community may be distinct from others by its doctrine, organisation, method of worship, or geography.

Members of the Church of England are known as *Anglicans*, as are the members of the many churches throughout the world in communion with it under the acknowledged, but not enforceable, leadership of the Archbishop of Canterbury. Anglicans are found in Great Britain and many other countries, especially those in whose development Britain has played a significant part. The Church of England is one of the group of Protestant churches – those churches which broke away from the Church of Rome at the Reformation and after. However, in many ways the doctrines and organisation of the Church of England are different from those of other Protestant churches. To understand why we must look at its history.

When Henry VIII broke the connection between the Church in England and the Church of Rome in the 1530's, the doctrines of the breakaway Church were still similar to those of the Church of Rome. For instance, its members believed in *trans-substantiation* – that the bread and wine can be miraculously turned into the Body and Blood of Christ. But gradually the doctrines of the Church of England were influenced by those of such Protestant thinkers as Calvin (see page 2110) and Luther (see page 1248). The doctrine of trans-substantiation was rejected by extremists; but the Church of England did not accept all the ideas of Calvin and Luther and, in general, steered a middle course between Roman Catholicism and the more extreme forms of Protestantism. This 'via media' became the doctrinal hall-mark of the Church of England under a series of creative theologians, such as Richard Hooker (1554–1600).

In organisation the Church of England also steered a middle way. King Henry VIII became head of the Church of England, but he did not alter the basic organisation; archbishops, bishops, parishes, and so on, were maintained.

As the influence of Britain increased throughout the world and as her empire grew, other churches, founded by members of the Church of England, appeared. In 1867 the first Lambeth Conference was held and was attended by all the bishops in communion with Canterbury. The Conference has met at intervals of about 10 years. Not only does the Lambeth Conference include bishops from the United States, Africa, India, Australia, the West Indies, China, Japan, and many other countries; the bishops also come from nearer home – from the Episcopal Church in Scotland, and the Churches in Wales and Ireland.

Members of the Church of England are allowed considerable latitude in some of their beliefs, but they all share certain basic doctrines. These might be summarised by what is known as the Lambeth Quadrilateral; namely the Scriptures, the three main creeds, the Sacraments of Baptism and Holy Communion, and the ministry of bishops, priests, and deacons. They claim that through these they can combine all the essentials of a truly Christian and world-wide Church with a considerable liberty of conscience in non-essentials. The Church of England says that nothing can be declared essential to the faith if evidence for it cannot be found in the Scriptures. This liberty of conscience allows such radical thinking as that by the Bishop of Woolwich in his recently published best-seller *Honest to God*.

The organisation of the Church of England

The Archbishops of Canterbury and York are both called *primates*. The Archbishop of Canterbury is Primate of All England, the Archbishop of York Primate of England. The Church is represented in the House of Lords by the two archbishops, the bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester, and by the 21 next senior bishops, irrespective of their sees.

Each bishop is in charge of a diocese and is assisted by suffragan bishops and archdeacons. Archdeacons are the executive officers of the bishops and deal with administrative matters. Like suffragan bishops, they have territorial titles like Archdeacon of Dorset, Archdeacon of Canterbury, and so on.

Below the bishops and archdeacons are rural deans in charge of the rural deaneries into which each diocese is divided. After this come the parish priests called rectors or vicars. The parish priests may have assistant clergy to help them, and these are called curates.

Church and State

Legally the present relationship of Church and State reflects the historic situation when Church and State were one. Bishops are appointed by the Queen, on the recommendation of the Prime Minister of the day, while all Church legislation has to be approved by Parliament. In practice, however, the Church does exercise control over itself in most matters through the convocations of Canterbury and York and the Church Assembly which consists of representatives of the clergy and laity.

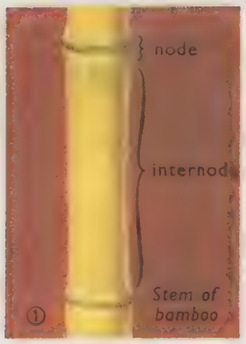
THE GRASS FAMILY

OF all plants that serve mankind, those of the grass family are the most important. We subsist on them both directly and indirectly; some of our most important foods, such as bread and rice, are produced from them, while most of our domestic animals, which supply us with meat and milk, feed largely on grass.

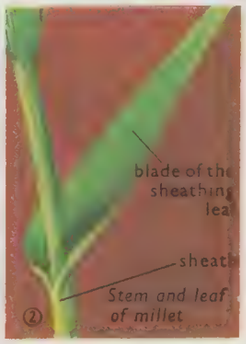
Grasses are classified in a very distinct family of plants called the Gramineae and were certainly the first plants to be cultivated.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GRASSES

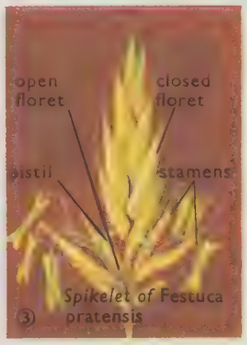
Nearly all grasses are herbaceous, having no woody tissues. Their chief characteristics are described and illustrated below.



① The stem (which is called a *culm*) is cylindrical in shape and usually slender. It is hollow in most species, except at the joints or nodes, where the leaves arise.



② The leaves are narrow and blade-like and are not joined to the stem by a stalk or petiole, as in most flowering plants, but by a tubular sheath that fits round and encloses the stem.

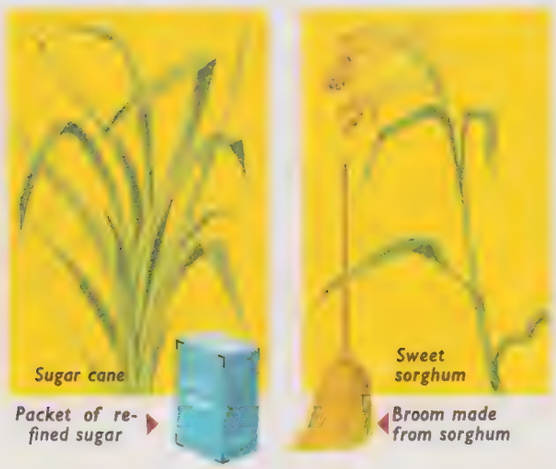


③ The flowers or florets have no petals or sepals. They are arranged in groups, called spikelets, which are in turn arranged in inflorescences, usually of the type called a spike.

④ The fruit or grain always contains a single seed and is of the type known as a caryopsis. It contains a food store consisting mainly of starch with some protein as well.

INDUSTRIAL GRAMINEAE

SUGAR CANE (*Saccharum officinarum*). The culm of sugar cane is not hollow but is filled with pith containing a sweet sap, which is the basis of cane-sugar production. The cane is pulped by special machinery and the juice is concentrated and refined. Sugar cane originally came from Asia but is now grown in most tropical countries with high rainfall.



SORGHUM (*Sorghum vulgare*). This plant, also known as great millet or Guinea corn, is cultivated in India, southern Europe, and the United States. The grain is used mainly for feeding pigs and chickens, while brushes and brooms are made from the fibrous flower heads. In southern Europe sweet sorghum (*Sorghum saccharatum*) is also grown, and sugar is extracted from its stems.

BAMBOO (*Bambusoideae*). These plants form a very distinct group which is regarded as a sub-family. Most of them, and all of the large species, grow in tropical countries, where some reach a height of 120 feet, with culms over 6 inches thick at the base. These are the only grasses to develop woody tissue. Bamboos play an important part in the economy of the people of tropical Asia, and are used in housebuilding and to make matting and furniture. A large bamboo cut just below and some distance above a node makes an excellent vessel for cooking or carrying food. In temperate countries small species of bamboo are grown for ornamental purposes.

Bamboo plant of the genus Dendrocalamus

Maize plant

MAIZE (*Zea mays*). This is a plant of American origin and is known as 'corn' in the United States. It is now grown all over the warmer parts of the world. The yellow grain is used both for human food and for domestic animals, and oil is extracted from it. The stem is solid and the male and female flowers are borne on separate inflorescences on the same plant. The female (seed-producing) one is called an ear, the male one is called a tassel.

Dough made of maize flour

Ears of wheat

WHEAT (*Triticum vulgare*). This is the most important of the cereal or grain-producing crops and has been grown from very early times. By selection of varieties and crossing of different species several hundred kinds have been produced, some of which grow best in warm climates, others even as far north as the Arctic Circle.

Wheats are divided into hard wheats for making bread, and soft wheats for cakes, biscuits, and domestic flour. The Italian pastas are made from a type called Durum wheat.

Ears of rice

RICE (*Oryza sativa*). Rice originated in tropical Asia and is still cultivated there on an enormous scale, forming the staple diet of many millions of people. It is the only cereal plant that grows best in marshy ground, and its cultivation involves systematic flooding of the fields and then draining them for the harvest. China and India are the largest producers and consumers of rice. Thailand and Burma are the largest exporters. Some rice is also grown in southern Europe, the United States, and Brazil.

RYE (*Secale cereale*). Originating in south-eastern Europe and Asia Minor, rye is the hardiest of all the cereal crops. It can be cultivated on poor soils and in mountainous regions; it can also withstand dry conditions. It is used on the European continent for making so-called black bread and provides the malt from which some kinds of whisky are made.

BARLEY (*Hordeum* species). There are several species of barley, distinguished by the number of rows of spikelets; there may be six, four, or two. In Britain and Europe two-rowed varieties are usually grown because they are the best for malting. Malting is the first stage in making beer and is the purpose for which most barley is grown, though it is also used for feeding cattle.

OAT (*Avena sativa*). This is a cereal of the north temperate regions. It is used to some extent for human food, more extensively as food for domestic animals, especially horses. The production of oats has decreased in recent years since most horses have been replaced on farms by tractors. The 'ear' is in the form of a panicle rather than a spike.

MEDICINAL GRASSES

BERMUDA GRASS (*Cynodon dactylon*) is one of the few grasses that is immediately recognisable, the flower heads being very unlike those of any other species. It is found, rather rarely, in sandy places in Britain, but is a pasture grass in North America and some tropical countries. An infusion from it is sometimes used as a cure for certain types of poisoning.

The cooling drink called barley water is an infusion of barley grains in water.

The distinctive plant Bermuda grass

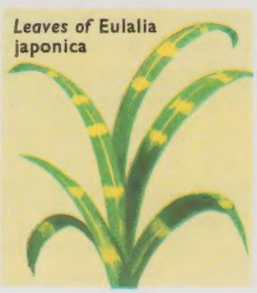
A cup of barley water

MILLET (*Panicum miliaceum*). Formerly cultivated for human food in Asia and southern Europe, millet is now more familiar as an ingredient in the 'birdseed' used for feeding cage birds.

The grasses used for pasture and for making hay are also of great importance and have been intensively studied by agricultural botanists. Among the most useful species are perennial rye grass (*Lolium eprenne*) and cocksfoot (*Dactylis glomerata*), grown together with white clover.

ORNAMENTAL GRASSES

GINERIUM ARGENTIUM
This beautiful grass is well known under the name of pampas grass. It is a native of the open plains or pampas of southern South America and grows well in temperate climates.



EULALIA JAPONICA
This handsome grass grows in clumps and is cultivated for the sake of its leaves rather than its flowers. The leaves of this variety are variegated green and yellow. The species is of Japanese origin.

ARUNDINARIA
Several of the bamboos of this genus can stand up to the European climate and are usually grown in dense clumps. They are all fairly small species, natives of temperate Asia, especially Japan and the Himalayas.

CLASSIFICATION
Family: Gramineae (grasses, cereals, bamboo)
Order: Glumiflorae (as above with sedges and rushes)
Class: Monocotyledoneae
Division: Angiospermae or flowering plants

ALCIBIADES

IN the year 420 B C the Athenians elected the young Alcibiades to be one of the 10 generals who commanded their armed forces. This choice was, in the end, to prove disastrous. But who can blame them for succumbing to the personality of this handsome, brave, and intelligent young man? Though he was impetuous and insolent, all Athens admired his eloquence, his sharpness, and his wit.

Alcibiades was born in Athens in about 450 B C. His mother was a cousin of Pericles (see page 2496) in whose house Alcibiades was brought up after the death of his own father. Pericles became very fond of him; and together with Socrates, the famous philosopher (see page 817), he tried in vain to discipline and direct the young man's many talents.

When Alcibiades was elected general in 420 peace had just been made between Athens and Sparta. But Sparta's allies were dissatisfied with the peace terms, and Alcibiades did all he could to stir up trouble. He persuaded the Athenians to make an alliance with Argos, Sparta's traditional enemy, hoping that he would be given command of a large Athenian army in the Peloponnesus. But Nicias, his rival at Athens, accused him of provoking unnecessary disputes. Alcibiades was not re-elected general in 418; and Sparta decisively defeated the Argives and their allies at Mantinea.

The Sicilian expedition

Alcibiades now looked for other means of satisfying his ambition. An opportunity came when Segesta, a Greek city in Sicily, appealed to Athens for aid against Selinus, ally of the powerful city of Syracuse (see page 751). Alcibiades encouraged the Athenians to equip an enormous expedition. He painted glowing pictures of Sicily, and of the possibility of Athenian conquests there. The more cautious Nicias was opposed to the expedition, and warned the Athenians of its difficulty and expense. But Alcibiades had fired their imagination: they insisted that both Nicias and Alcibiades, with another general called Lamachus, should go as joint commanders.

When the great fleet was about to set sail (415 B C), a strange event happened. The Athenians were shocked one morning to find that during the night someone had mutilated the *Hermae* – the square stone pillars, surmounted by busts of the god Hermes, set up at street corners and in front of houses. No one ever really discovered who had done this; but Alcibiades was suspected. (He was almost certainly not guilty, although he was notoriously wild and irreligious.)

Alcibiades wanted to be tried and acquitted before he set sail; but his enemies managed to prevent this. Not until he was already directing operations against Syracuse was he recalled to stand trial.

Alcibiades, Athens's friend and foe

Alcibiades changes sides

Alcibiades now realised that his enemies in Athens were plotting to have him put to death, for most of his supporters were with the expedition in Sicily. On the way back to Athens he escaped at Thurii and crossed to Sparta. Here he found Syracusan envoys appealing for Spartan help against the Athenians. Alcibiades urged the Spartans to send a Spartan general to Syracuse, and to seize Decelea in Attica – the key to Athens's communications by land. This the Spartans did; and the Sicilian expedition ended as a colossal failure for the Athenians.

Meanwhile Alcibiades sailed with the Spartans to persuade Athens's allies in Asia Minor and the Aegean to revolt. But the Spartans did not trust him, so he fled to the Persians.

Alcibiades could not return to Athens while the democrats remained in power. He therefore encouraged those who were disillusioned by the democracy's failure in the Sicilian campaign, and wanted to establish an oligarchy in Athens. They managed this in 411, partly because most of the poorer citizens were away serving in the fleet, which by now was at Samos. But the democrats set up a democratic government of their own at Samos and recalled Alcibiades. They proposed to sail at once to Athens and restore democracy there; but Alcibiades dissuaded them: it would mean, he pointed out, abandoning what was left of the Athenian empire to the Spartans, and civil war at Athens. Instead, leading the democrats' fleet, he defeated the Spartans at Cyzicus; the oligarchy at Athens collapsed; and Alcibiades was welcomed as a 'liberator' from the very oligarchy for which he had paved the way – though he did not actually return to the city until 407.

The Athenians hoped Alcibiades would be able to use his influence with the Persians to make an alliance; but he was unsuccessful; and to this failure was added a defeat by the Spartans at Notium. The Athenians did not re-elect him general. Rather than return to Athens in disgrace he retired to the Chersonese.

The Athenians won one more victory, at Arginusae (405); but next year their fleet faced the Spartans at Aegospotami. Alcibiades returned to the scene and advised the Athenian commanders to move to Sestus. They would not, and next day were defeated by Lysander in the final, decisive battle of the Peloponnesian War. Alcibiades fled to Phrygia, where he was murdered by the Persians.

Alcibiades was one of those men whom it is dangerous to have on one's own side, but even more dangerous to have as an enemy. Athens, to her great misfortune, experienced him as both.

YOU SHOULD NOW KNOW

1. *When was Alcibiades first elected general?*
2. *Who was his great rival?*
3. *What was the Sicilian expedition?*
4. *What crime was Alcibiades suspected of?*
5. *Who killed him, and when?*

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The top teams of last season

We do not know who will be League champions for the season 1963–64. The reigning champions are Everton, the 'Bank of England' team from Merseyside whose fabulously expensive stars have been recruited from all parts of the British Isles. Last season they fought a three-cornered battle for the championship with Spurs and Leicester, and eventually finished six points above Spurs and nine above Leicester, who were beaten into fourth place by Burnley. Leicester were doubly unlucky because they unexpectedly lost the Cup Final to Manchester United, who for most of the season were struggling against relegation. The Second Division champions were Stoke City, inspired by footballer-of-the-year Stanley Matthews, the 48-year-old winger who was playing soccer before most of the present international stars were born.

Last season was a poor one for the previous champions, Ipswich, who narrowly escaped relegation and were knocked out of the European Cup (by Milan) in the second round. But last year's champions, Everton, did even worse, going out (again to Milan) in the first round. Tottenham Hotspur, who qualified for the European Cup Winners competition by winning the F A Cup in 1961–62, did better. They won the competition, beating Atletico Madrid 5–1 in the final.

Spurs team which won the European Cup Winners competition
Brown, Baker, Henry, Blanchflower, Norman, Marchi, Jones, White, Smith, Greaves, and Dyson.

Everton: League champions 1962–63
Gabriel, Parker, Wignall, West, Labone, Heslop, Meagan, Green, Veall, Bingham, Young, Vernon, Stevens, Thomson, Harris, Scott, and Kay.

Manchester United: F A Cup winners in 1962–63
Setters, Nicholson, Gaskell, Brennan, Pearson, Cantwell, Foulkes, McMillan, Dunne, Stiles, Lawton, Giles, Quixall, Herd, Law, Charlton, and Crerand.

BADGES OF FAMOUS BRITISH FOOTBALL CLUBS

Arsenal

Cardiff City

Chelsea

Dundee

Everton

Heart of Midlothian

Ipswich Town

Manchester City

Manchester United

Nottingham Forest

Sheffield United

Sheffield Wednesday

Tottenham Hotspur

Wolverhampton Wanderers

FIRST DIVISION. FINAL POSITIONS 1962–63

Club	*Founded*	*Played*	*Won*	*Lost*	*Pts.*	*League Champs*	*F A Cup winners*
Everton	1878	42	25	6	61	6	2
Tottenham H.	1882	42	23	10	55	2	4
Burnley	1881	42	22	10	54	2	1
Leicester City	1884	42	20	10	52	0	0
Wolves	1877	42	20	12	50	3	4
Sheffield Wed.	1886	42	19	13	48	4	3
Arsenal	1886	42	18	14	46	7	3
Liverpool	1892	42	17	15	44	5	0
Nottingham F.	1865	42	17	15	44	0	2
Sheffield Utd.	1889	42	16	14	44	1	4
Blackburn R.	1874	42	15	15	42	2	6
West Ham	1895	42	14	16	40	0	0
Blackpool	1887	42	13	15	40	0	1
W.B.A.	1874	42	16	19	39	1	4
Aston Villa	1874	42	15	19	38	6	7
Fulham	1880	42	14	18	38	0	0
Ipswich	1880	42	12	19	35	1	0
Bolton	1874	42	15	22	35	0	4
Manchester U.	1885	42	12	20	34	5	3
Birmingham	1875	42	10	19	33	0	0
Manchester C.	1880	42	10	21	31	1	3
Leyton Orient	1881	42	6	27	21	0	0

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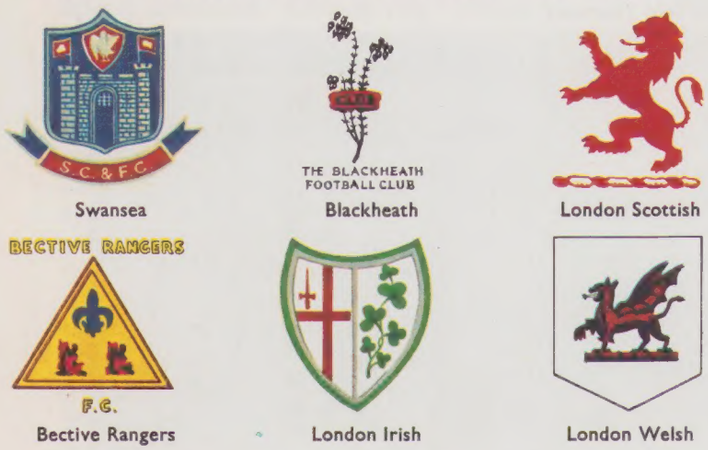
Soccer's coldest season

The 1962–63 season will be remembered as the year of the Great Freeze, when arctic conditions virtually stopped all soccer for weeks on end. Such winters are strong arguments in favour of closing the soccer season from, say, January to February and extending it into the summer. Take, for example, the third round of the F A Cup. It began on 5th January, and under normal conditions would have been almost completed on that day. A few replays might have taken a week or so longer. But in fact that third round lasted till the 11th March, when Middlesbrough beat Blackburn in a replay. It was by far the longest round in soccer history. Altogether there were 261 postponements, the main sufferers being Lincoln and Coventry (match postponed 15 times), Birmingham and Bury, Sheffield Wednesday and Bolton, and Walsall and Manchester City (all postponed 14 times).

The chaos caused on the football pools – gambling organisations with which millions of people stake their money on the results of matches – resulted in the invention of an extraordinary guessing game. On four successive Saturdays a Pools Panel gave imaginary results for the games which were not played.

COLOURS OF SOME FAMOUS INTERNATIONAL TEAMS

BADGES OF FAMOUS BRITISH AND IRISH RUGBY UNION CLUBS



BADGES OF FAMOUS ENGLISH RUGBY LEAGUE CLUBS

Some other types of football

During a football match at Rugby School in 1823 young William Webb Ellis picked up the ball and ran with it. Today there is a tablet at Rugby to commemorate this act which led to modern Rugby football. Ellis was breaking one of the few general rules of football at the time – that the ball must not be carried forward in the hands. Rugby football, as it came to be known, grew in popularity and by the 1870s had spread as far afield as Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, as well as in the British Isles. In 1893, however, 22 clubs in the North of England withdrew from the Rugby Union, the English governing body, and set up their own Northern Union, which in the 1920s became known as the Rugby League. The reason for their breakaway was the Rugby Union's refusal to countenance the payment of players' expenses. Two other off-shoots of Rugby football are American and Canadian football, while other games in which the ball is handled include Australian Rules and Gaelic football.

The main difference between Rugby Union and Rugby League is that in Rugby Union all the players must be amateurs, while in top-class Rugby League players are paid. There are 15 players in a Rugby Union side and only 13 in Rugby League; there are other regulations in Rugby League which have been introduced to open up the game.

Both Rugby Union and Rugby League are played on an international scale. Australia, New Zealand, France, and England play each other in Rugby League matches. But Rugby Union is played in more countries – as far afield as Argentina and Fiji. In England Rugby League is concentrated in the north, but Rugby Union is played throughout the British Isles.